

Analysis and Design of Analog Integrated Circuits
Lecture 24

Bipolar Devices and Their Applications

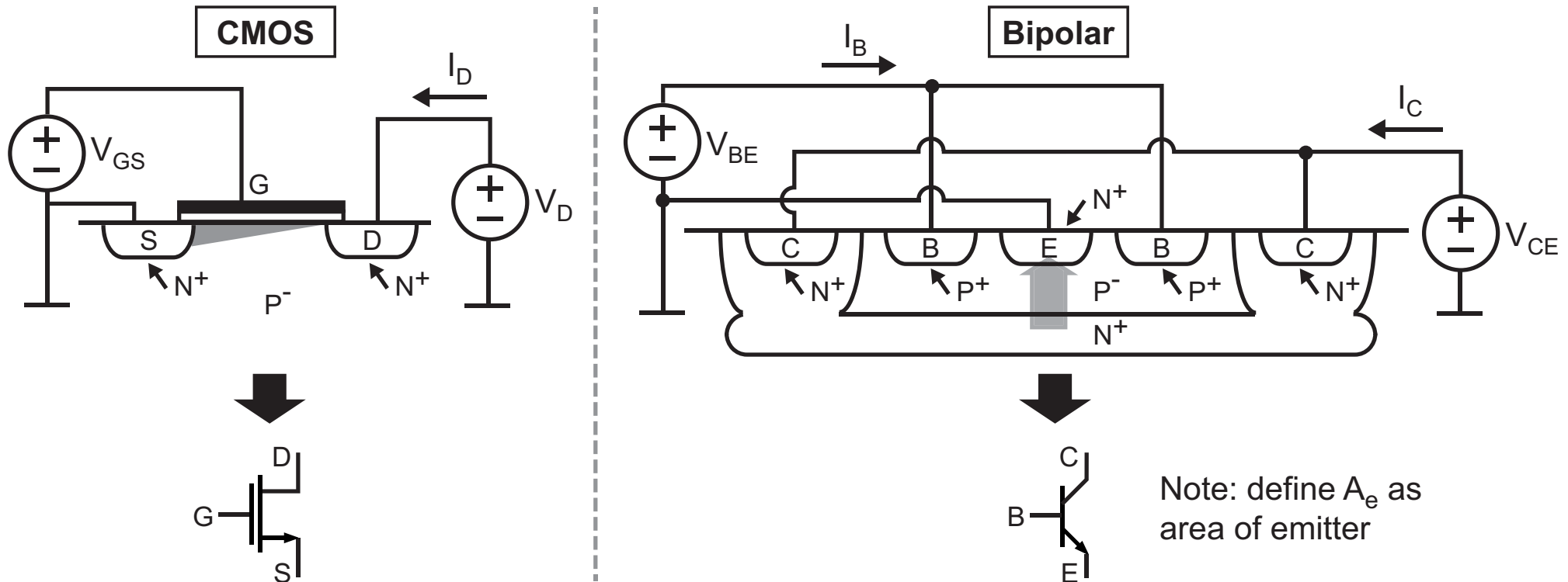
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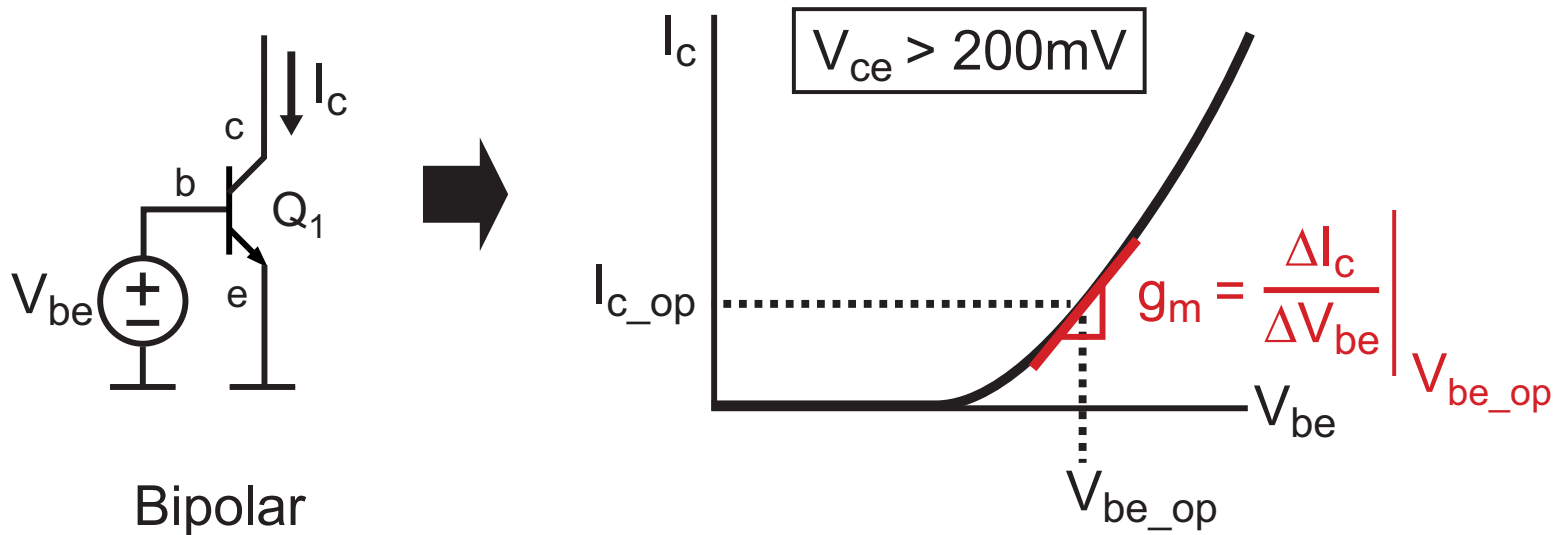
Introducing Bipolar Devices (Within CMOS Processes)



- **Modern CMOS processes often offer Deep N WELL**
 - Allows a buried N⁺ layer to be implanted
 - Vertical NPN bipolar device can be achieved

This lecture will discuss modeling and applications of such “parasitic” bipolar devices

Collector Current as a Function of V_{be}



Bipolar

- For $0 < V_{ce} < 200\text{mV}$, $V_{be} > 0$, device is in saturation
 - This region of operation is typically avoided
- For $V_{ce} > 200\text{mV}$, $V_{be} > 0$, device is in forward active mode

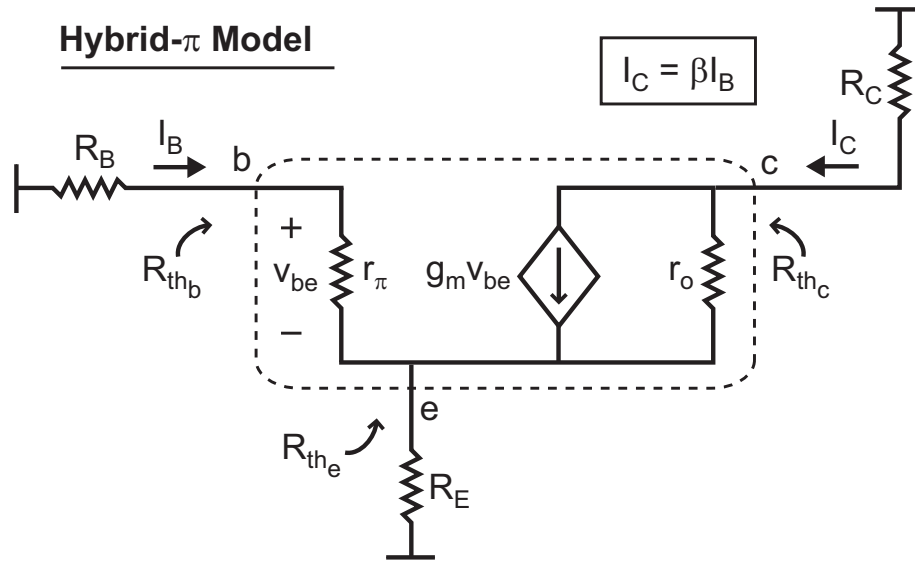
$$I_c = \beta I_b$$

$$I_c = A_e I_s (e^{V_{be}/V_t} - 1), \quad \text{where } V_t = kT/q$$

$$\Rightarrow g_m = \frac{\delta I_c}{\delta V_{be}} \approx \frac{I_c}{V_T}$$

Thevenin Modeling of Bipolar Device

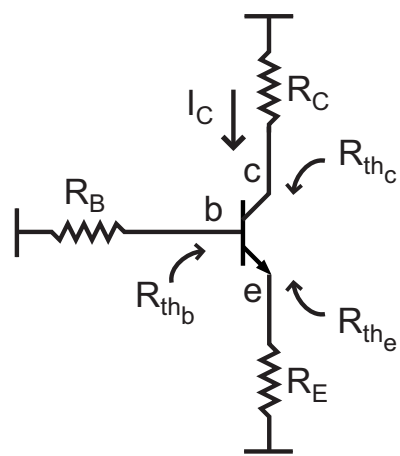
Hybrid- π Model



Key Small-Signal Parameters

Parameter	Forward Active	Definition
g_m	$\frac{I_C}{V_t}$	$V_t = \frac{kT}{q} \approx 26\text{mV at } 25^\circ\text{C}$
r_π	$\frac{\beta}{g_m}$	β is Current Gain
r_o	$\frac{V_A}{I_C}$	V_A is Early Voltage

Thevenin Resistances



Approximation

$$R_{th_c} = r_o (1 + g_m(r_\pi \parallel R_E))$$

$(R_B \ll r_\pi, R_B \ll R_E)$

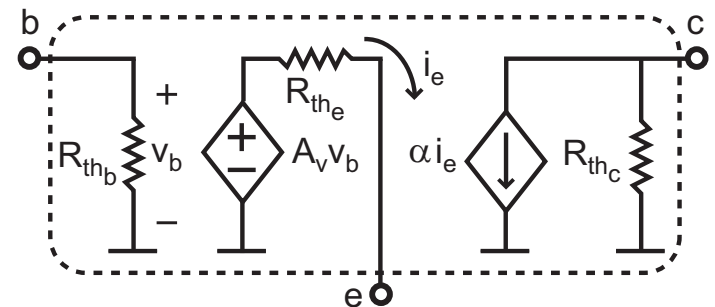
$$R_{th_b} = r_\pi + (\beta + 1)R_E$$

$(R_C \ll r_o, R_E \ll r_o)$

$$R_{th_e} = \frac{1}{g_m} + \frac{R_B}{1 + \beta}$$

$(R_B + R_C \ll \beta r_o)$

Proposed Small Signal Transistor Model



Exact

$$A_v = \frac{1}{1 + (1 + R_C)/(r_\pi + \beta r_o)}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\beta}{\beta + 1} (1 + R_C/R_{th_c})$$

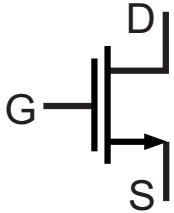
Approximation

$$A_v = 1 \quad (R_C \ll \beta r_o)$$

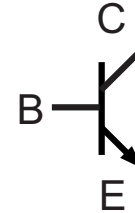
$$\alpha = 1 \quad (R_C \ll R_{th_c})$$

Bipolar Versus CMOS Devices

CMOS



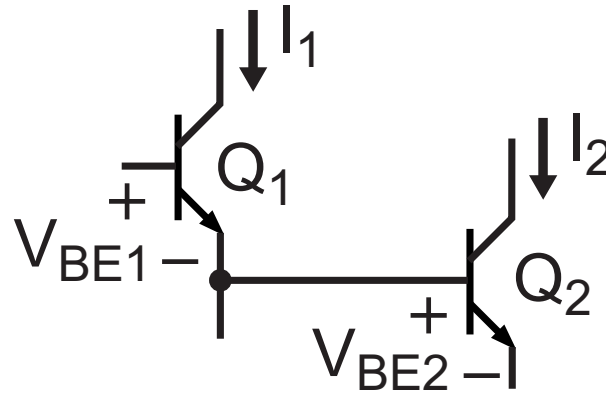
Bipolar



- Bipolar has higher g_m for a given amount of current
 - Useful for high speed applications
- Bipolar has lower $1/f$ noise and lower offset issues
 - Useful for high precision analog
- Bipolar has well defined behavior over a wide operating range: $I_c = A_e I_s (e^{V_{be}/V_t} - 1)$
- Exponential behavior allows analog multipliers and dividers to be realized using translinear principle

CMOS is the preferred device for low cost, high density, and high complexity digital circuits

Consider Adding V_{BE} Voltages



- In general

$$I_c = A_e I_s \left(e^{V_{BE}/V_t} - 1 \right) \approx A_e I_s e^{V_{BE}/V_t}$$

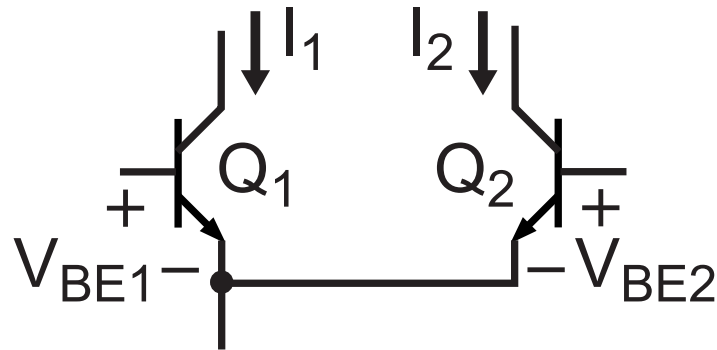
$$\Rightarrow V_{BE} \approx V_t \ln \left(\frac{I_c}{A_e I_s} \right)$$

- Addition of V_{BE} voltages corresponds to *multiplication* of collector currents

$$V_{BE1} + V_{BE2} = V_t \ln \left(\frac{I_1}{A_{e1} I_s} \right) + V_t \ln \left(\frac{I_2}{A_{e2} I_s} \right)$$

$$= V_t \ln \left(\frac{I_1 I_2}{A_{e1} A_{e2} I_s^2} \right)$$

Consider Subtracting V_{BE} Voltages

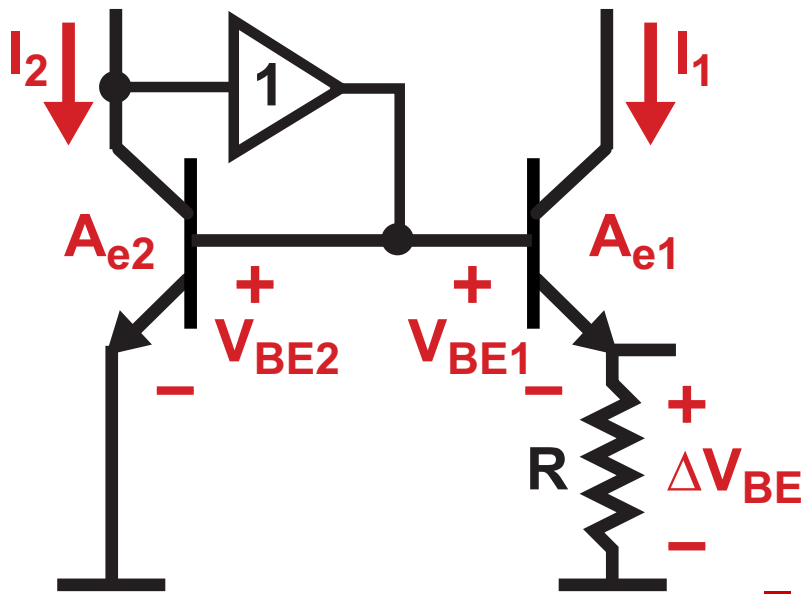


- Subtraction of V_{BE} voltages corresponds to *division* of collector currents

$$\begin{aligned} -V_{BE1} + V_{BE2} &= -V_t \ln \left(\frac{I_1}{A_{e1} I_s} \right) + V_t \ln \left(\frac{I_2}{A_{e2} I_s} \right) \\ &= V_t \ln \left(\frac{I_2 A_{e1}}{I_1 A_{e2}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Translinear circuits can be built which achieve multiplication, division, and power-law relationships (see: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translinear_circuit)

A Closer Look at Subtracting V_{BE} Voltages



- Subtract V_{BE} of bipolar devices

- Different emitter areas/currents

$$\Delta V_{BE} = V_{BE2} - V_{BE1} = V_t \ln \left(\frac{I_2 \cdot A_{e1}}{I_1 \cdot A_{e2}} \right)$$
$$= \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left(\frac{I_2 \cdot A_{e1}}{I_1 \cdot A_{e2}} \right)$$

- Assume ΔV_{BE} varies **0.18mV/°C**

- True if $(I_2/I_1)(A_{e1}/A_{e2}) \sim 10$

- In general, we see that ΔV_{BE} is a PTAT voltage source

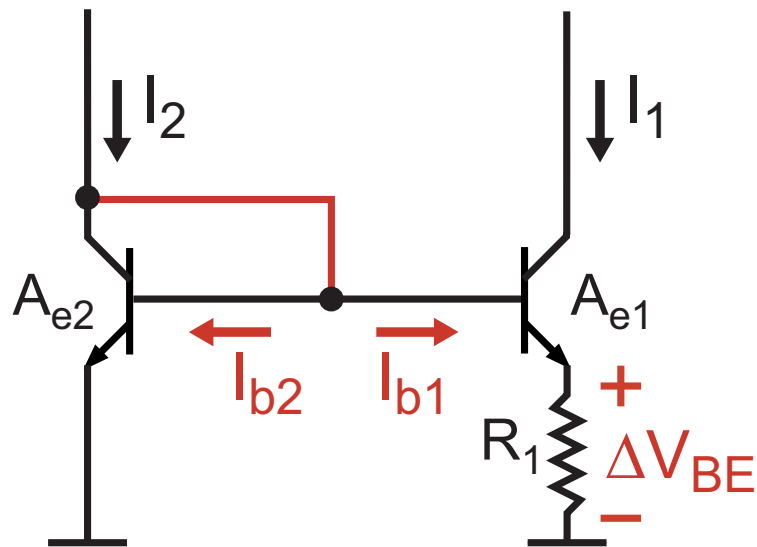
- PTAT : Proportional to Absolute Temperature

- The current through resistor R is also PTAT

- This ignores changes in the resistance due to temperature

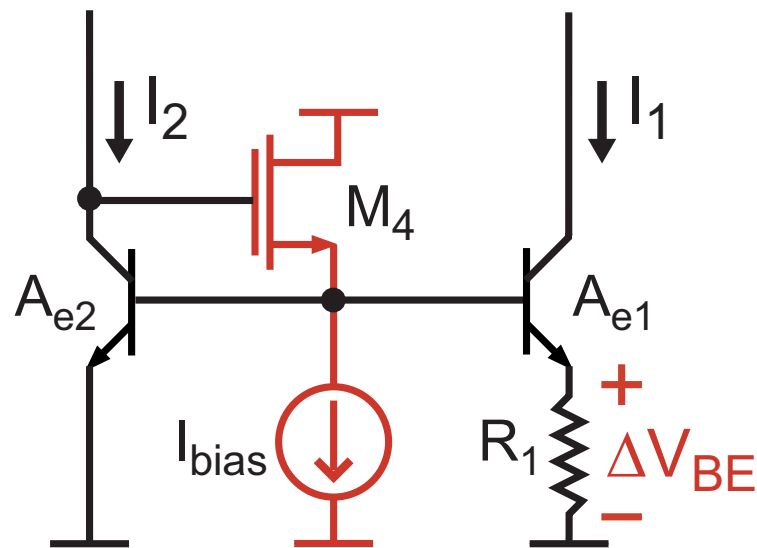
Implementation Details of PTAT Current Source

- Let us walk through various issues and circuit approaches for realizing our PTAT current source



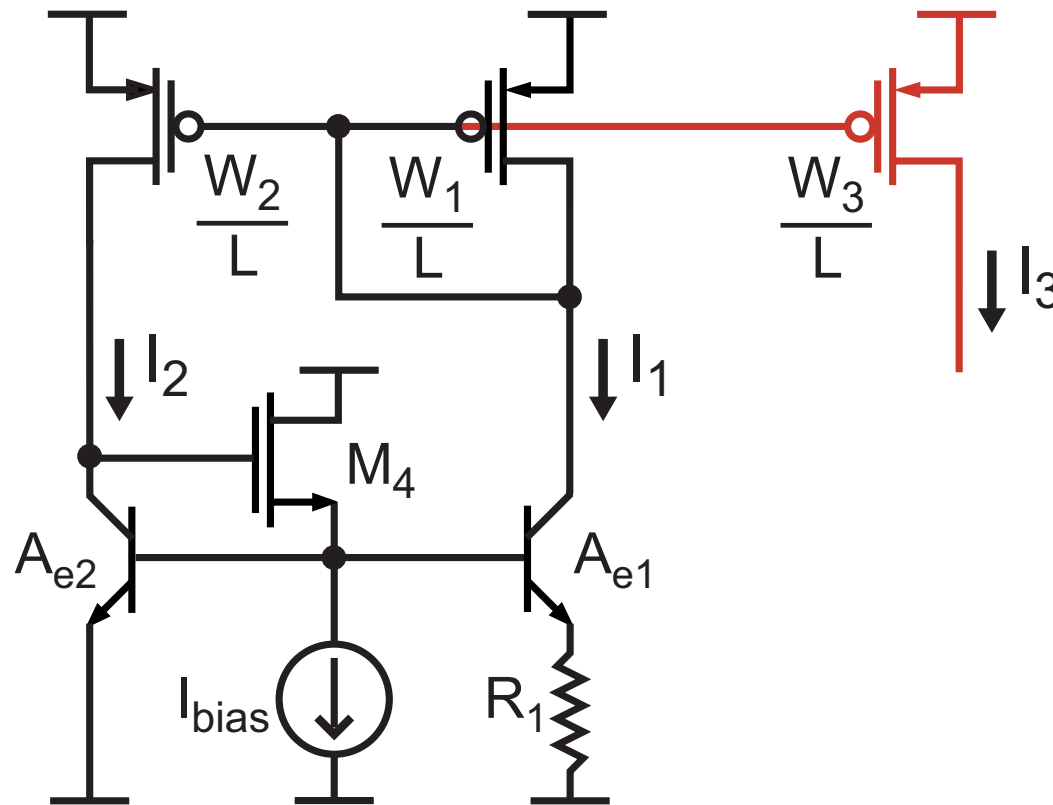
- Simple diode connection leads to $I_{c2} \neq I_2$
 - This leads to $I_{c2} = I_2 - I_{b2} - I_{b1}$
 - But, we want $I_{c2} = I_2$ so that $I_2 \approx A_{e2} I_s e^{V_{be2}/V_t}$

NMOS Source Follower Mitigates Base Current Issue



- Simple NMOS source follower allows us to supply base current without corrupting I_2
 - If available in the fabrication process, use a Native NMOS device which has $V_{TH} \approx 0$
 - Leads to improved headroom (lower V_{DD} possible)

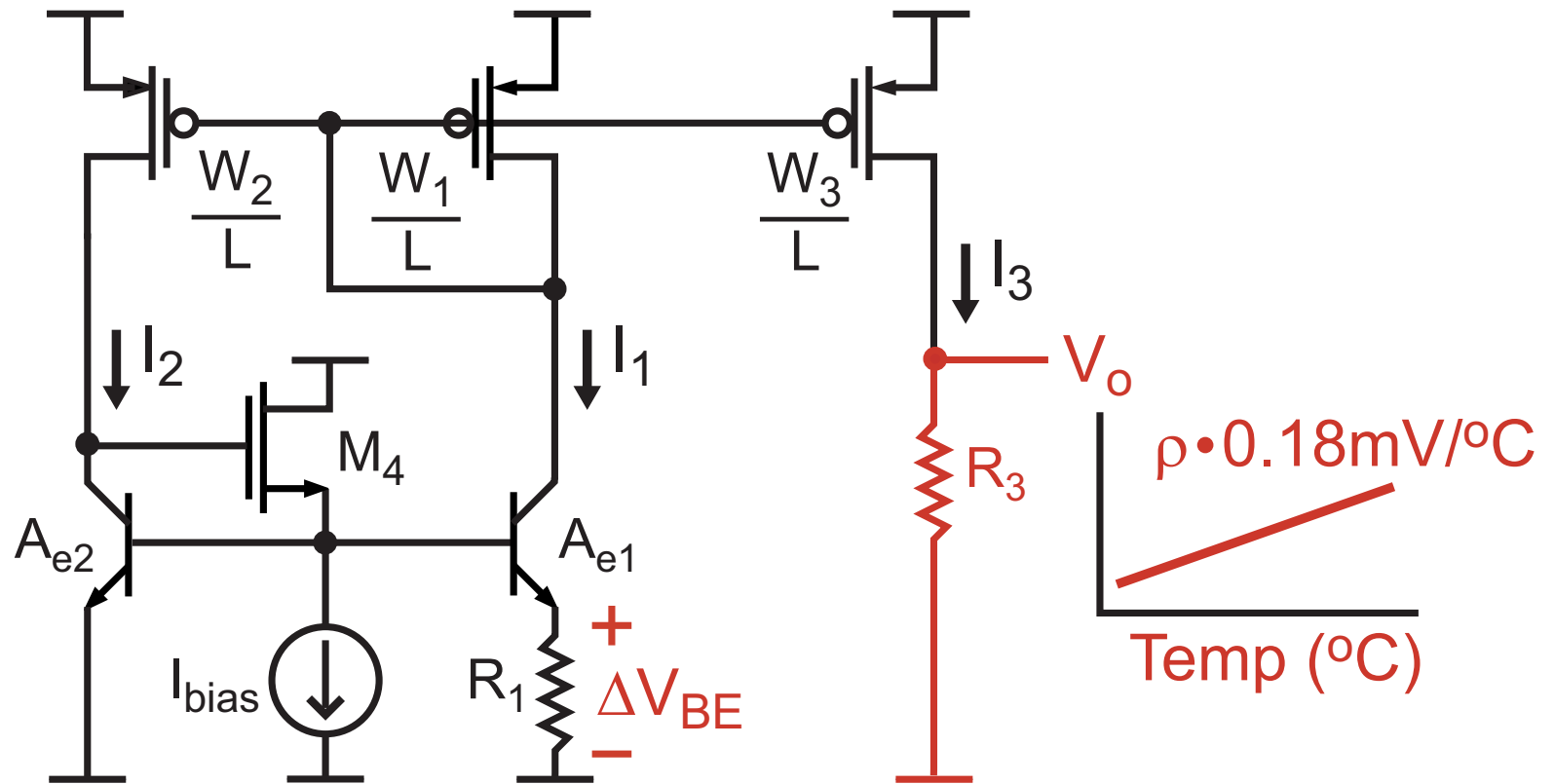
PTAT Current Output Is Simple Extension of Mirror



$$I_3 = \frac{W_3}{W_1} I_1 = \frac{W_3}{W_1} \left(\frac{\Delta V_{BE}}{R_1} \right) \frac{\beta}{\beta + 1}$$

- Issue: temperature variability of R_1 and β
 - R_1 is biggest concern assuming β is large

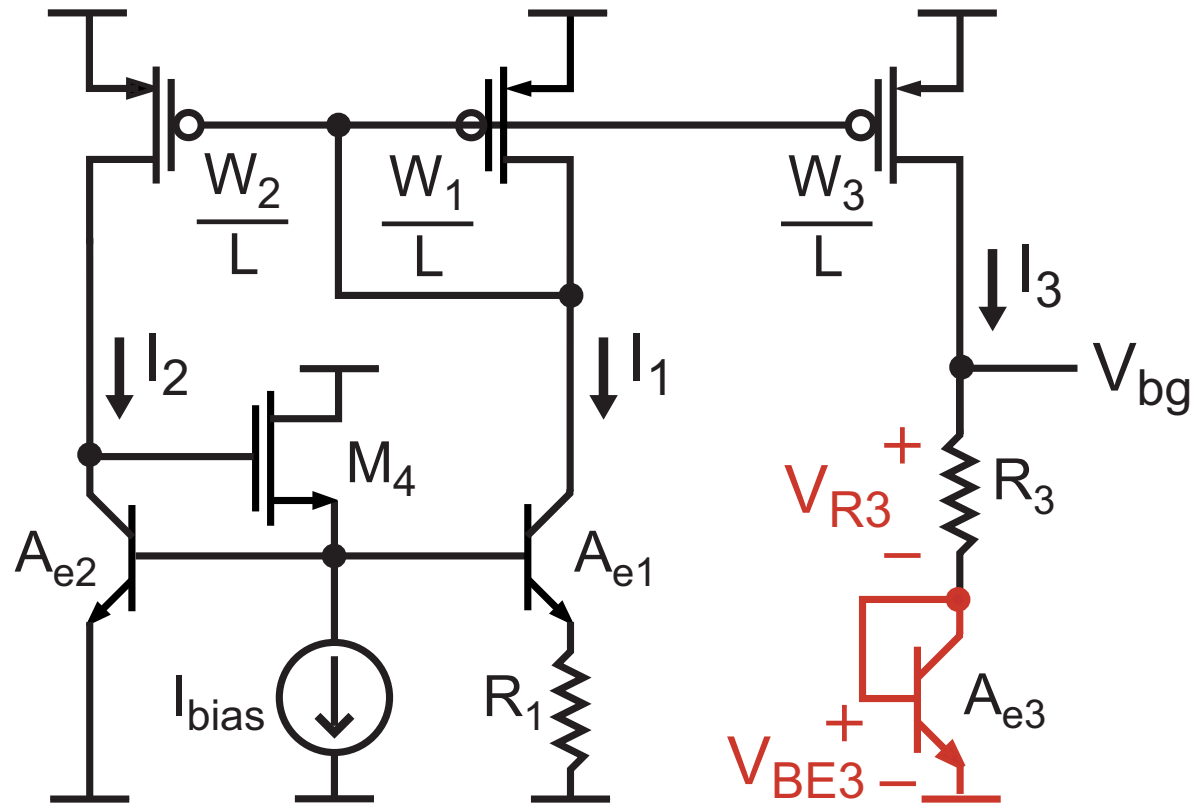
PTAT Current Output Can Be Converted to Voltage



$$V_o = I_3 R_3 = \frac{W_3}{W_1} \left(\frac{\Delta V_{BE}}{R_1} \right) \frac{\beta}{\beta + 1} R_3 \approx \frac{W_3 R_3}{W_1 R_1} \Delta V_{BE}$$

- Output voltage set by *ratio* of resistor values R_3/R_1
 - Greatly reduces impact of R variation with temperature

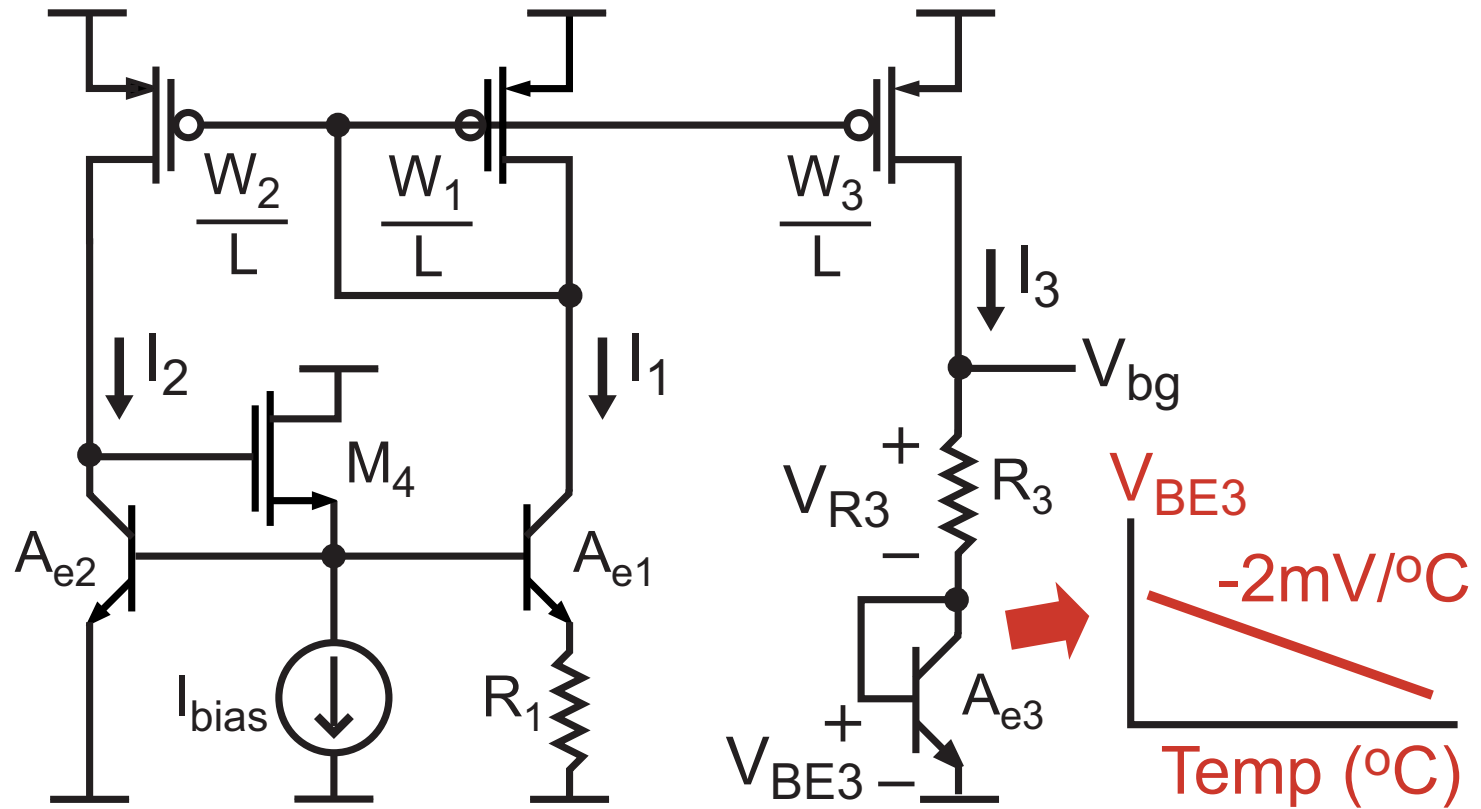
Consider Adding V_{BE} to the PTAT Voltage



$$V_{bg} = V_{R3} + V_{BE3} \approx \frac{W_3 R_3}{W_1 R_1} \Delta V_{BE} + V_{BE3}$$

- It turns out that this corresponds to a bandgap circuit
 - Proper design leads to stable V_o across temperature

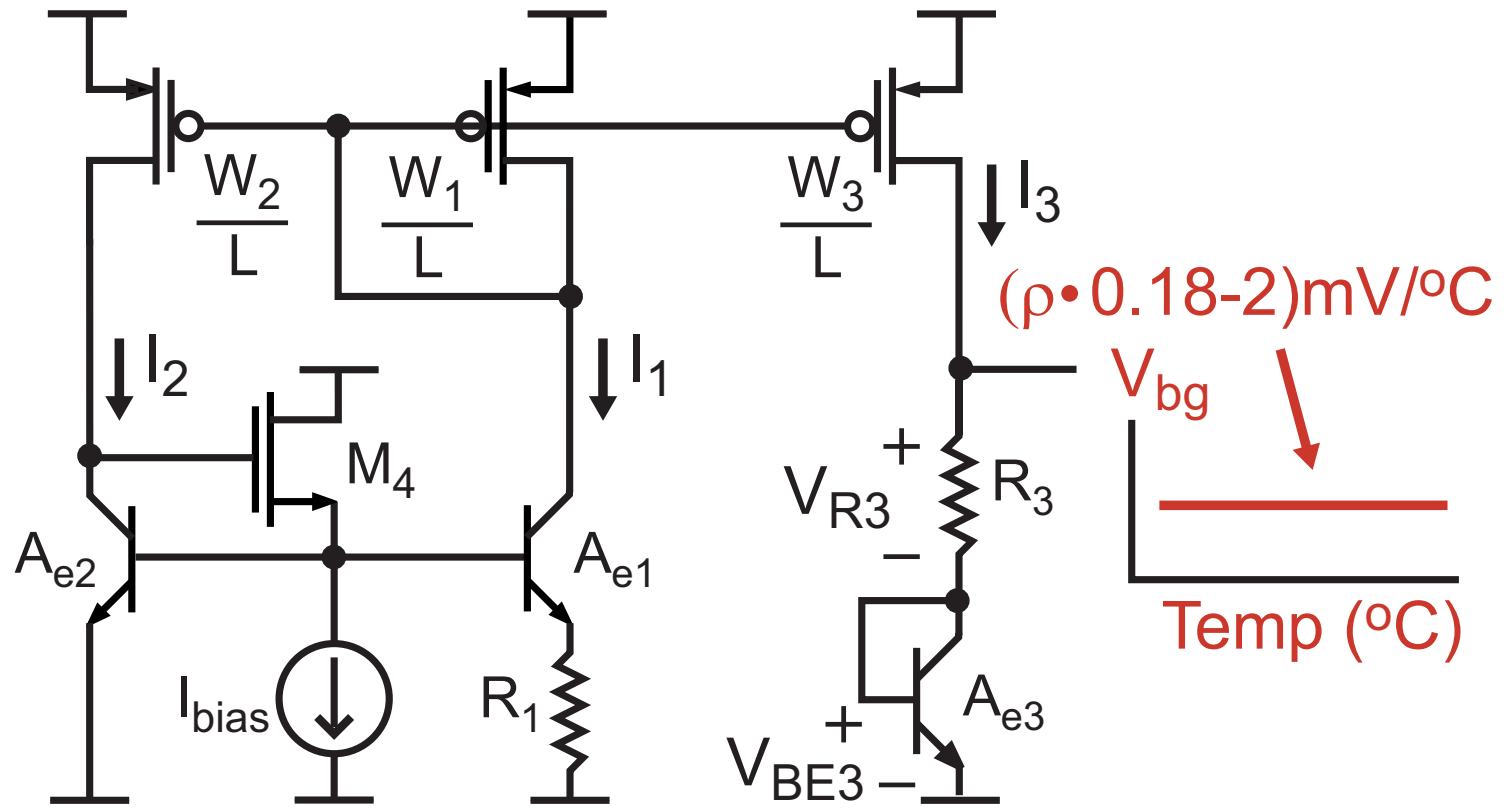
Temperature Sensitivity of V_{BE}



$$V_{bg} = V_{R3} + V_{BE3} \approx \frac{W_3 R_3}{W_1 R_1} \Delta V_{BE} + V_{BE3}$$

- V_{BE} has opposite temperature sensitivity as ΔV_{BE}
 - Recall that ΔV_{BE} is a PTAT voltage ($\approx +0.18\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}$)

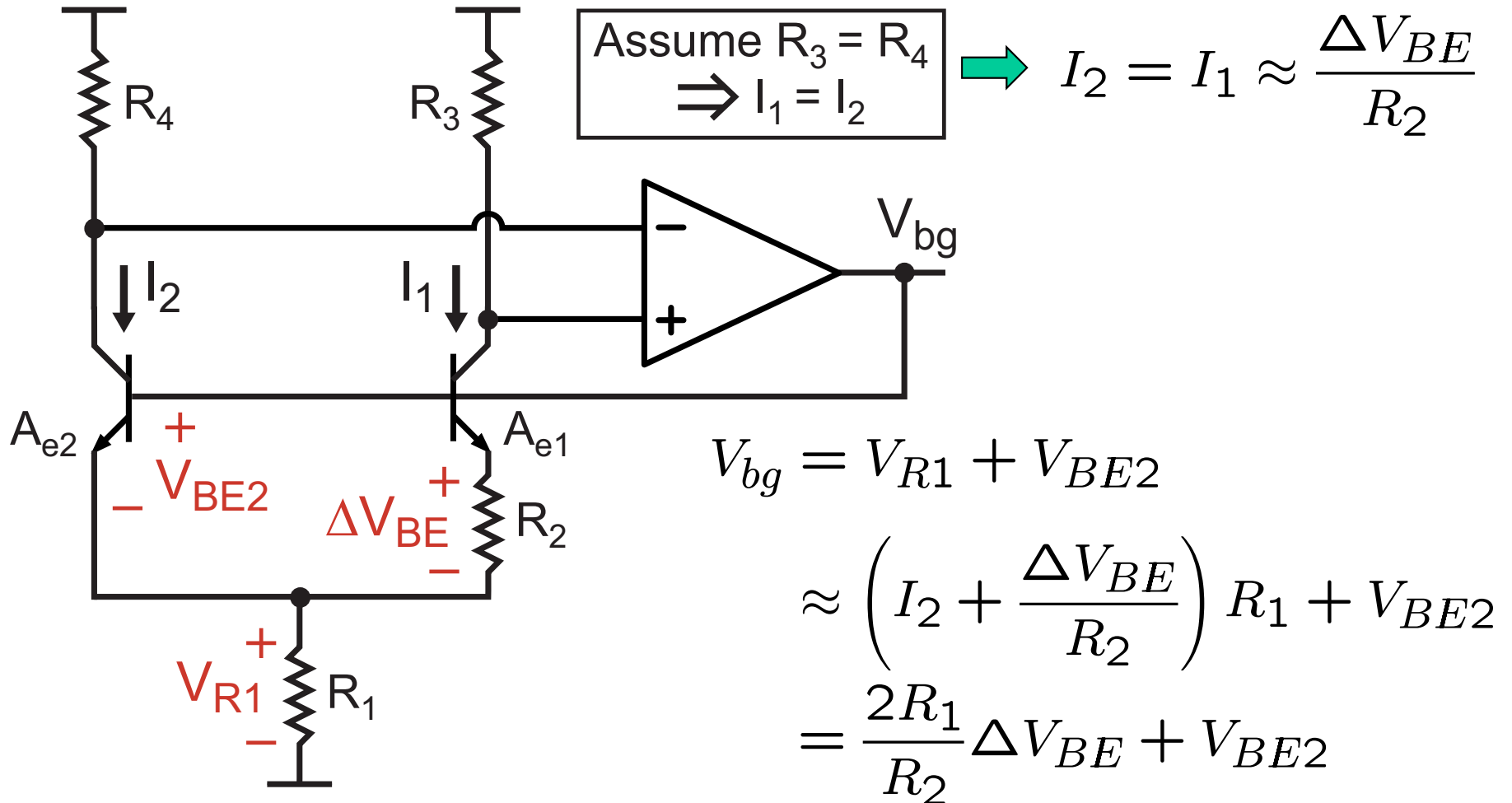
Bandgap Achieved Through Proper Scaling



$$V_{bg} = V_{R3} + V_{BE3} \approx \frac{W_3 R_3}{W_1 R_1} \Delta V_{BE} + V_{BE3}$$

■ **Set ratio as**
$$\rho = \frac{W_3 R_3}{W_1 R_1} = \frac{2 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{C}}{0.18 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{C}} = 11.11$$

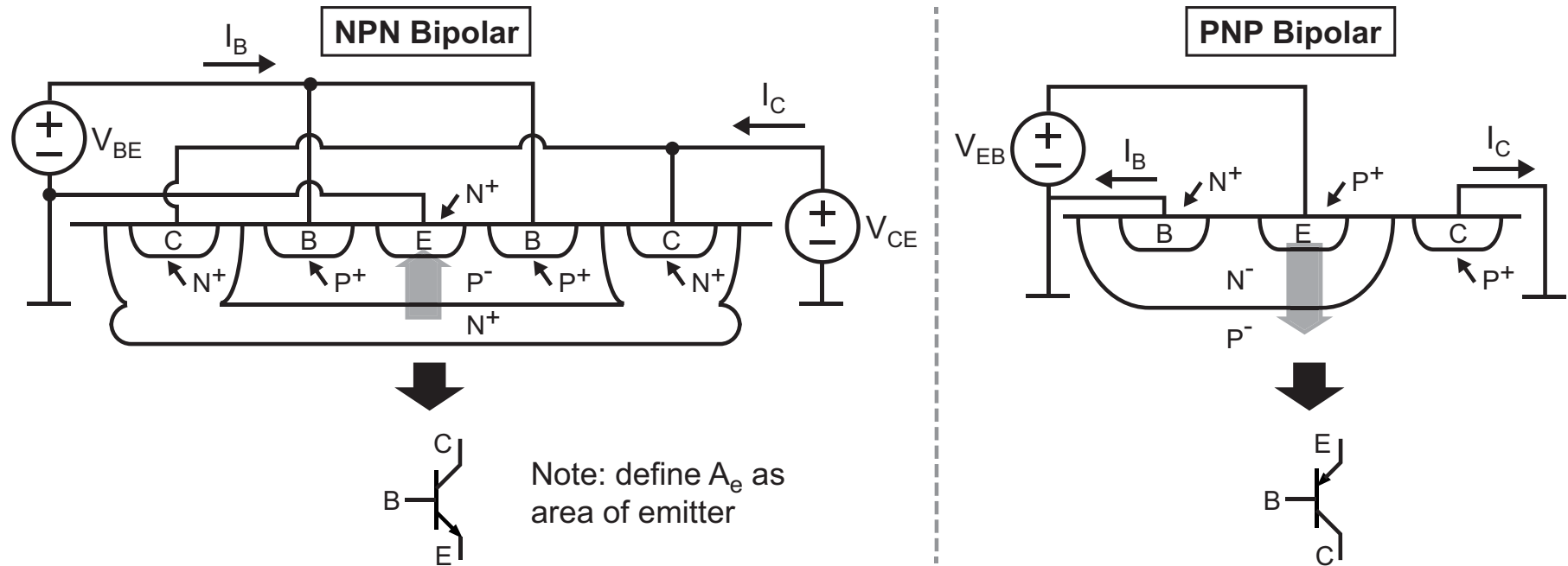
The Brokaw Bandgap Circuit



- Assuming ΔV_{BE} varies at $0.18\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}$, set ratio as

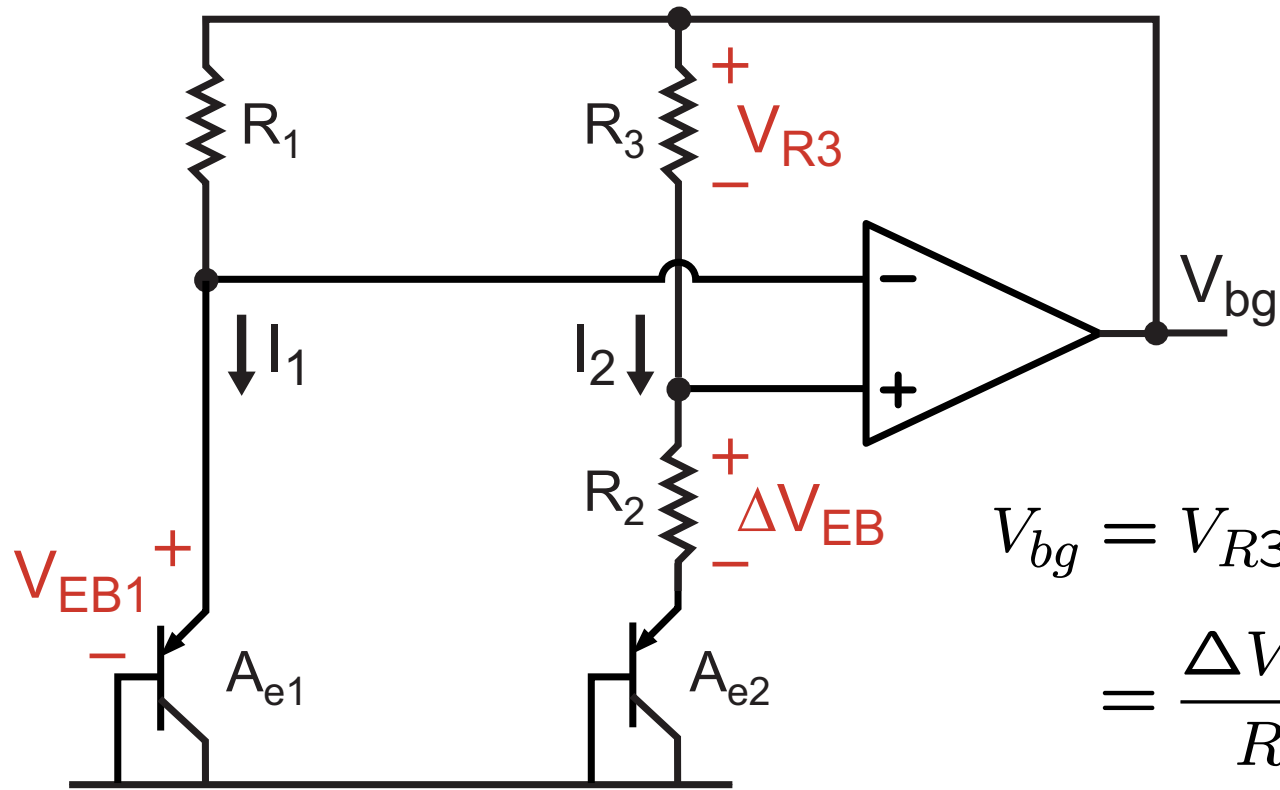
$$\frac{2R_1}{R_2} = \frac{2\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}}{0.18\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}} = 11.11$$

What if Deep NWELL Is Not Available?



- Deep NWELL allows an NPN device
- A PNP device is possible without Deep NWELL
 - A key constraint is that the collector must be grounded!

Grounded Collector PNP Bandgap Circuit

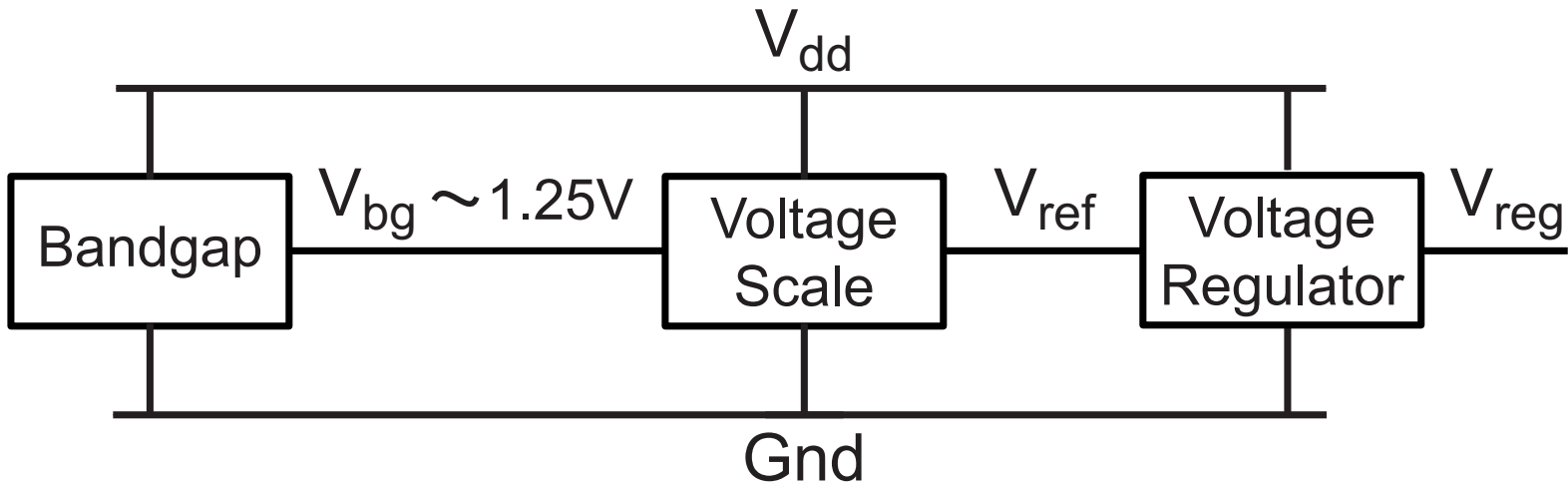


$$\begin{aligned}
 V_{bg} &= V_{R3} + V_{EB1} \\
 &= \frac{\Delta V_{EB}}{R_2} R_3 + V_{EB1} \\
 &= \frac{R_3}{R_2} \Delta V_{EB} + V_{EB1}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Assuming ΔV_{EB} varies at $0.18\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}$, set ratio as

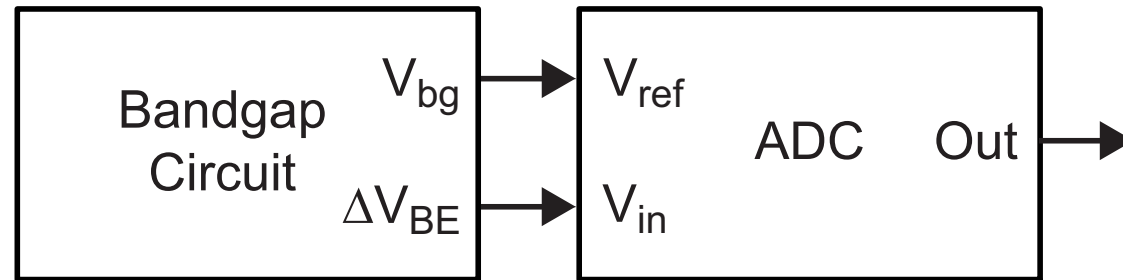
$$\frac{R_3}{R_2} = \frac{2\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}}{0.18\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}} = 11.11$$

Voltage Regulation Using a Bandgap Reference



- **Commonly used in modern integrated circuits**
 - Rejection of power supply variation and noise
 - Variable voltage operation of circuits

Temperature Sensing Using Bipolar Devices



- Recall that ΔV_{BE} is a linear function of temperature

$$\Delta V_{BE} = V_{BE2} - V_{BE1} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left(\frac{I_2 \cdot A_{e1}}{I_1 \cdot A_{e2}} \right)$$

- We can create an accurate temperature sensor by comparing ΔV_{BE} to a temperature stable bandgap reference voltage
 - Analog-to-digital converter is used to digitize the temperature signal

Summary

- **CMOS processes offer parasitic bipolar devices**
 - Deep NVELL option allows both NPN and PNP devices
- **We can use the same analysis tools for both bipolar and CMOS devices**
 - Hybrid π and Thevenin modeling techniques
- **Bipolar devices have very useful properties**
 - Exponential characteristic over a wide operating range
 - Higher g_m for a given current than CMOS devices
 - Lower $1/f$ noise and offset issues than CMOS devices
- **Bipolar devices are very useful for certain circuits**
 - Translinear circuits (for multiplication and division)
 - Bandgap voltage references
 - Temperature sensors